1; Thurston & Rangachari E,G-4,5 (no date) 1909
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782 at the temple, the head and carcase being placed in front
• [784] of the image. The witness steps over the carçase, and this forms the oath. If the evidence is false, it is believed that some evil will happen to him."

101 The name Badaga or Vadugan means northerner, and
114 the Badagas are believed to be descended from Canarese colonists from the Mysore country, who migrated to the Nīlgiris three centuries ago owing to famine, political
141 turmoil, or local oppression in their own country. It is
144 worthy of notice, in this connection, that the head of the Badagas, like that of the Todas and Kotas, is dolicho-cephalic, and not of the mesaticephalic or sub-brachy-cephalic type, which prevails throughout Mysore, as in other Canarese areas.

	Average.		
	Cephalic length. cm.	Cephalic breadth. cm.	Cephalic index.
Badaga ...	18·9	13·6	71·7
Toda ...	19·4	14·2	73·3
Kota ...	19·2	14·2	74·1

Of the Mysorean heads, the following are a few typical examples :—

	Average.		
	Cephalic length. cm.	Cephalic breadth. cm.	Cephalic index.
Ganiga ...	18·5	14·3	77·6
Bēdar ...	18·3	14·3	77·7
Holeya ...	17·9	14·1	79·1
Mandya Brahman	18·5	14·8	80·2
Vakkaliga ...	17·7	14·5	81·7

539 Concerning the origin of the Badagas, the following legend is current. Seven brothers and their sisters were living on the Talamalai hills. A Muhammadan

852 (868) sitting down, milks a small quantity into the honē. This is his first initiation into the duty of milking, and it is that he may not commit mistakes on the very first day of his milking that the honē is previously filled almost to the brim. The boy takes the vessel filled with milk into his house, and pours some of the sacred fluid into all his household eating vessels—a sign that from that day he has taken up on himself the responsibility of supplying the family with milk. He also throws some milk in the faces of his parents and relatives. They receive it very kindly, and bless him, and request him to continue thus to milk the buffaloes, and bring plenty and prosperity to the house. After this, the boy enters the milk-house (hāgōttu), and places milk in his honē there. From this moment, and all through his life, he may enter into that room, and this is therefore considered a very important ceremony."

234 788 A cow or buffalo, which has calved for the first time, has to be treated in a special manner. For three or five days it is not milked. A boy is then selected to milk it. He must not sleep on a mat, or wear a turban, and, instead of tying his cloth round his waist, must wear (784) it loosely over his body. Meat is forbidden, and he must avoid, and not speak to polluting classes, such as Irulas and Kotas, and menstruating women. On the (783) (824) day appointed for milking the animal, the boy bathes, and proceeds to milk it into a new honē purified by smearing a paste of *Meliosma* (tūd) leaves and bark over it, and heating it over a fire. The milk is taken to 782 a stream, where three cups are made of *Argyreia* (mīnige) 788 leaves, into which a small quantity of the milk is placed. (234) The cups are then put in the water. The remainder of the milk in the honē is also poured into the stream. In some places, especially where a Mādeswara temple is

3: Hockings, E-5 (1962-1963) 1968
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Great House precedes everyone else and afterwards announces for the benefit of others that he has completed his duty. Only after the water has been poured into his cattle pen may anyone go beyond the hamlet boundaries.

During the rest of the day, however, no one may do any outdoor work, not even something as trivial as picking up firewood. The permitted exceptions to this rule are that people may wash themselves and their clothes, and that the men may clean out their cattle sheds and prepare bedding for the cattle. Until recently a heavy fine was levied on anyone trying to do other kinds of work on this day.

This ceremony is generally considered by the Badagas to be one of the most important, or as some put it, "most sacred," in the entire calendar of festivals. That it should be so may seem surprising, in view of the unimportant role that cattle now play in the economy of this culture. We might expect that festivals celebrated at times of sowing or harvest would be the most significant for an agricultural community such as the Badagas. Yet the giving of salt is widely held to be quite as crucial as either the sowing or the harvest festival.

What, then, is it about giving salt to cattle that makes this event so essential to the festival calendar of this particular society? My answer would be that in the course of this ceremony a symbolic reference is made to all the roots of social stability and all the sources of the good life. Every society needs certain occasions when the bases of its organization and the ideals by which it lives are made visible to the members of that society. In this respect the Badagas are in no way unusual; the salt-giving is in fact a time when the whole community is busily engaged in acting out various roles which make the foundations of social life apparent to its members. Values which guide the community are thus paraded in the ceremony, a display which helps preserve them from doubt and obscurement.

A person's requirements for attaining the good life are summarized in the prayer which is spoken beside the stream. Here reference is made to maintaining long-established traditions, to having a plentiful harvest, to a superfluity of milk, and to the birth of many calves and children. The final line, "Let everything be good!" underlines the intent of the whole ceremony.

The Badagas themselves do everything possible on this occasion to ensure that things will in reality become "good" for them. They show due deference at every point to the living representative of their hamlet's founding family, who built the Great House and so started their community. They reward the Todas for their friendship and services. They pay brief respect to Ganga, the goddess who is represented in all streams and who controls rainfall. They pay respect to the sun, source of all light, by facing it before they stoop beside the stream. They show gratitude to the cattle, which are an important source of food and were formerly the indispensable laborers of every farmer. They ceremoniously gather specimens of two useful wild plants. Their route takes them to what have traditionally been the most sacred places in every Badaga hamlet: the Great House, the village green,

4: Hockings E-5 (1962-1977) 1980
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goats recently, they did so during the seventeenth century and even later (Finicio 1603: 723; Birch 1838:103).

I.7. After contact with the British a new adjustment with their changed environment was achieved by the Badagas, and their population was able to increase rapidly for several decades while there was still a very low density of population. One relevant factor, I would hypothesize, was that a change in their drinking habits followed the arrival of the British (from 1819 onward), and that this was associated with greater resistance to bacteria in the drinking water. The main drinks of the community at the time were fresh milk and stream water: "...at midday, or towards evening, parties of them are often to be seen seated on the bank of some brook or rill, partaking of their simple fare, which generally consists of barley or other meal, mixed up with some of the pure element that is gurgling past them, a little salt, and a little chilly" (Harkness 1832: 111; so also Young 1827: 42, Birch 1838:103, and Dulles 1835: 465-66). Two British officials, one a surgeon, make it clear that until the 1830s the Badagas had no alcohol, and "drunkenness is unknown here" (Macpherson 1820: lix; Ainslie 1834: 36). But the surgeon had already in 1829 recorded that he had "tasted very tolerable specimens of beer which had been brewed on these hills from malt of Native Manufacture" (Price 1908: 218). Within another two decades a staggering change had come about:

> Lord Tweeddale...in 1847,...stated that he had never anywhere seen such widespread and continuous drunkenness amongst low-class natives as prevailed there [the Nilgiri town of Ootacamund], not only in the case of those resident, but also in that of peons, followers, and servants, brought up from Madras and other places. The drink at this time available was...arrack, which ...was not very expensive. (Price 1908: 51)

This drunkenness was more of an urban than a rural phenomenon, although some Badagas did go to the town to indulge themselves. Meanwhile, at the same time that beer and arrack were becoming available, so were tea and coffee. These hot drinks were generally preferred by the Badagas to stream water, because of the cool climate, even though they had a religious tabu against heating milk (Vivekanandam Pillai 1937: 247). In this latter regard, I was told that if one keeps milk in a warm place it will "boil up" of its own accord

41 Hockings E-5 (1962-1977) 1980
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after a few hours. This seemingly trivial belief had a hygienic importance, for it meant that fresh milk would be used quickly and not kept, lest the tabu about boiling be violated. If milk were allowed to "boil up" (i.e., curdle) *of its own accord*, this was taken as an omen of imminent danger or death for the household, and thus a very serious matter indeed.

The effect upon Badaga health of the changes in drinking habits outlined above was reinforced by other cultural practices, specifically in regard to buffalo dung and spitting. Various maps of Badaga villages made in the first half of the nineteenth century show that several stone kraals were located just outside each village. This means that the fecal matter of buffalo herds was confined to a certain place; (I have myself seen dung over a foot deep in some kraals). Unsavoury though these places must have been, they ensured that the dung was not spread throughout the habitation area of each village, and this substantially reduced "the chance of transference of enzootic and epizootic diseases to man" (Alland 1970: 56). As the value of farmland for tea and potato cultivation grew, especially during the present century, the Badaga population increased dramatically but the size of the cattle herds dwindled. The present-day situation is therefore that Badaga population density is vastly higher than it was, but the risks of cattle-borne infection are proportionately much less because the lack of grazing has forced them to make heavy reductions in the size of their herds and abandon many of the kraals.

As we shall see below (2.11), indiscriminate spitting was not allowed in and near the home or temple. Spittoons were used inside the house; and a proverb stressed that, "If you ask for an obligation it is essential to see the right people: it is essential to spit in the proper place." With this attitude prevalent, the spread of various viruses and of *Mycobacterium tuberculosis* has been greatly curtailed. The regular washing of the body and shaving of pubic hair described below (2.9, 2.13) have also contributed to health by restricting the incidence of bodily fungi and lice-borne diseases (Alland 1970: 58). In nearly all villages the houses are built in parallel lines with solid stone or brick walls partitioning each house from its neighbours. In Ke:ti, a typical village in this respect, it was found that on the average each row of houses was separated from those in front and behind it by a distance of 10 meters, which was mostly the span of the courtyards. This relative lack of crowding of living space has

[TEXT CONTINUED ON PAGE 13]

4: Hockings E-5 (1962-1977) 1980
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853 the woman is startled, or if she comes into contact with a "bad wind" as we discuss below (5.4). When a nursing mother comes (262) from a family known for its low milk yield she is given buttermilk, made from boiled cow's milk, and with it a rich diet of clarified butter and food made from little millet. She does no hard work and enjoys complete rest. (Nothing is rubbed onto the breast.)

5.3. If a nursing mother is eating irregularly, or having sweet things, or too much food, such behaviour can affect the nature of her milk. To counteract its poorer quality a certain medicine can be given to the child, but only between its fifth and twelfth months (generally just in the fifth and sixth). It is made from two plants, *homogu* and false privet, used in the proportion 2:1 and baked with clarified butter. The material is then ground on a special stone and mixed at the same time with some of the mother's milk. A pinch of salt is usually added. Finally half as much butter as the volume of this mixture is added to it, and the resultant medicine is divided into three parts, each rolled into a ball 2 cms. in diameter. The baby swallows one of these balls on the morning, a second in the evening, and the third the next morning.

853 262 757

853 262 164 If a nursing mother eats too many sweet things, she may transmit worms to her baby through the breast-milk. In fact, small children are much more liable to worms than their mothers. A woman thus may not have worms while her nursing infant does; and if she eats too many sweets in the eighth or ninth month of pregnancy, worms may appear in her child during the first three months of life.

853 783 784 5.4. A nursing mother is regularly afraid that if she goes near a corpse or smells another birth, or if she smells anyone other than her own husband in the early morning who has not yet bathed since coitus the night before, the breasts may cease to give milk. Some are even afraid that a sudden noise will have this effect, and others are afraid of hearing talk of any terrifying subject. This phenomenon of a "bad wind" associated with the polluting aspect of coitus, birth and death works in devious ways. When a newly delivered mother is in the room before another woman's delivery occurs she can stay there and the smell at the time of birth will not affect her; yet if she enters a room where a birth has just occurred the bad odour there can affect the flow of her milk.

853 761 If an adult dies in her presence her milk is not threatened by a

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fully with the partner. Some non-vegetarians do make a medicine for infertility from the eye of the crow-pheasant (*Centropus sinensis parroti*).

6.63. Badagas rarely offer *pu:ja* at a local temple nowadays in order to obtain children, but in the last century they often did so. Worship of the phallic *linga* symbol associated with Siva was considered very efficacious, particularly in those rare cases where it happened to be a prehistoric axe-head that had "miraculously appeared" in a field during ploughing. The Badaga ancestress deity Hette was also commonly resorted to for the same reason (Jagor 1876 : 199-200). Today it is usual for a couple with no children to make a pilgrimage to some important temple in the South Indian plains, where they make oaths to various gods, promising them goats, coconuts or idol ornaments once they have satisfied the supplicants' need for a child. It is no light matter for a man in an undivided joint family to take such an oath, because of the rules that it entails: in order to fulfil his promise after the birth of a child, the man must consult his family as to when that can be done. The problem is that (*a*) these oaths are normally fulfilled after a birth, but only on a festival day if they were taken in a *Badaga* temple: (*b*) they must not be fulfilled while *any* woman in the joint family is pregnant ; and yet (*c*) they must be fulfiled within twelve years of the requested birth. If this last rule is disregarded the offended god may visit another misfortune on the family; and so, even in a nuclear family, a man will try to discharge his obligation to the deity well before the twelve years following the birth, just in case his wife should happen to be pregnant again during the festivals of that final year. A further rule (*d*) is that if a man has promised the hair of his child to a deity, and if he waits for several years to make good his promise, then he must at the same time

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164 will neither eat nor sleep as usual. Throughout it he should always be covered with cloths, and these can only be of cotton, never wool. The covering is necessary to prevent wind from blowing on the itches. The pus in the spots would exude, but were it to be blown by wind it would go inside the body instead, causing the patient to feel very sick or even to die. The house
164 must always remain ritually pure while someone has
784 chicken-pox; thus men may not smoke in it, the pare-
(783) nts must not have sexual relations, and if the patient is still an unweaned baby its mother must not lie on a bed or on matting, but must sleep on some sacks laid on the floor. During this period nobody throughout the entire hamlet may prepare any foods in oil, and oil may only be used for lamps. When women are cooking in the patient's house, he is taken to another house or at least to the outer room, since the smoke from cooking can make his infection worse. Bands of
(177) Kota and Kurumba musicians, both lower status and impure local tribes, are on no account allowed into the hamlet while chicken-pox prevails there, even though they would normally attend at Badaga weddings, funerals and certain festivals. Therefore if a
164 person happens to die while there is chicken-pox in the
766 hamlet the corpse will quickly be buried or cremated;
177 but then later, when there is no longer any chicken-pox, a band of Kota musicians will come and the traditional funeral ceremonies will be observed, using a stick in place of the corpse. Of all the vari-
164 ous taboos that come into play during chicken-pox,
784 that against sexual relations is the most crucial, that against cooking with oil the second, and that against Kota or Kurumba music the third most important.

757 People suffering from this disease are given
758 "cooling" foods to eat, and preferably no "heating"
(261) foods at all. If the patient is an unweaned infant his mother has to adopt this food restriction too. Beyond this, there is also a technique for treating chicken-pox. On the third day after some spots

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753 were sacrificed by beheading directly in front of the
776 Ma:riamma temple. Two features of this ceremony
796 are of interest: one is that the soil was ploughed
782 at that point so that the blood of the victims flowed into the earth; the other is that a curtain was drawn in front of the image of Ma:riamma while the beheadings took place, lest the sight of all the blood should so arouse her thirst that she would go on the rampage through some villages, seeking the death of her human victims. A few years ago the animal sacrifices ceased. The symbolism suggests that Ma:riamma is a type of Hindu earth mother concerned as much with the fertility of the soil as with the control of disease: its control is obviously linked to the conservation of agricultural labour, from an ecological viewpoint.

753 If a person gets smallpox it means that he has
755 done something impure. For this reason a thera-
776 pist must pray to Ma:riamma for forgiveness of the patient's sins. The goddess is thereby pleased, not offended, if the patient recovers; yet if she is very angry she may still cause further deaths.

751 For a very long time the Badagas have relied on
177 inoculations against smallpox. Probably the first
(799) person to administer these was the German missionary G.H. Weigle, who in 1846 vaccinated about 700 Badagas, "as a result of which a whole village gave him false names, for fear of magic" (Basel Mission 1846: 48-49; Eppler 1900: 79). This represented a remarkable change of attitude, for the situation up to that time was that, "...many refuse to take any remedies themselves, or to allow any to be administered to their relations, and thence arises their antipathy to vaccination. The

751 supposition is not as to the nature or inefficiency
776 of the means, but it is the fear of offending the
796 goddess..."(Harkness 1832: 117, note). There is some evidence that the large-scale festivities in
784 honour of Ma:riamma were adopted by the Badagas only towards the middle of the nineteenth century,

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751 796 796 784

a dating which raises the interesting question of whether this worship was intended to soften her anger at the effectiveness of the newly-introduced "European" vaccinations (Stokes 1882: 173).

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It is believed that one infected person can infect many others, and yet Badagas feel that if someone from *beyond* the hamlet has seen an infected person before a neighbour in his *own* hamlet does so, the latter person is that much safer from attack. It is as though some of the danger has been carried off. A person may be infected by smallpox at any age, and he then retires to bed, while the remainder of the population leave the hamlet altogether. Someone of the same sex as the patient, and who has already had the disease, stays to attend him. This person need not be a therapist, but is advised by a therapist. It is believed that anyone who has already had smallpox cannot transmit the disease from an infected person to someone else unless he does it by giving the patient's clothing to somebody. This is quite unlikely to happen since other villagers are not in contact with him at the time. When a patient dies, all the people looking after other smallpox patients in that hamlet help bury the corpse. While it is permissible for other men to dig the graves, they keep well away when infected corpses are brought for burial. It is believed (and perhaps justifiably) that if they were cremated, the smoke could spread the disease.

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(753)

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Smallpox gives the patient more trouble with itching than do any of the other "sister" diseases, and so he lies on big plantain leaves since these give a cool sensation. He is given a diet of nothing but "cooling" foods, with very little salt. All of the rules and prohibitions adopted during the treatment of chicken-pox also apply to the people caring for patients with smallpox: thus the house must be kept pure, men must not smoke there, sexual relations must not occur, and no oily substances may be used in cooking. Anyone, whether

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758 inside the hamlet or not, if calling to a person still
784 in the hamlet must refrain from shouting to him. If it is essential to talk to someone in the hamlet a man turns his head away so that he cannot see that person. The idea underlying these various restrictions (753) seems to be that fragments of diseased skin could blow into the watery crevices or oily surfaces of the healthy body and thereby spread the disease.

757 At first smallpox is treated as a fever (6. 69), but
758 on the third day after it has been recognized as smallpox the person in attendance, under instruction from a therapist, begins the same water-sprinkling treatment described for the treatment of chicken-pox (7. 2). The water, with dead-nettle flowers and Bermuda grass in it, is sprinkled on the patient on the third, fifth, seventh and ninth days after recognition of the disease, and this continues if necessary on odd-numbered days up to the fifteenth —when 15 flowers and 15 pieces of grass are used. It is believed that no one will be afflicted with smallpox beyond the eighteenth day. As with the treatment of chicken-pox too, the patient is bathed on the last day and then made to sit under a thick cloth where he inhales smoke created by burning incense, tůrmeric, and the outer skins of red onions and garlic (cf. 7. 2).

164 Once a case of smallpox has been identified as
731 such, all the inhabitants of that hamlet leave and make homes for themselves in makeshift huts in their fields or perhaps some nearby jungle. But before leaving they quickly fence around their houses and workyards with thorn bushes, as a symbol of their hope that the disease might not follow them. Once in their makeshift homes they receive no visitors from elsewhere and visit no other hamlets, until the disease has disappeared entirely. At that time the hamlet's most influential men get together to decide on a day, called *u:r kuḍua jina*, when everyone will assemble and occupy their hamlet again. A

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by headache, nausea, reddening of the eyes, and perhaps some part of the body not functioning normally. The first phase moves into a severer second phase after the eighth day, so that the therapist has to watch closely for symptoms that differentiate it from Small Wind. In the latter illness the fever is "all over the body," whereas in Big Wind it is everywhere except "where the Big Wind struck." If a large area has been "struck," an entire limb may be paralyzed, the other feverish parts of the body are hot and sweaty while the "struck" part is cold.

No one has died of the disease, but if a cure is not effected the patient may be partially paralyzed for the rest of his life. Fortunately it is a very rare disease: my elderly informant, Sithamma, could only remember a single instance of it in her village during the entire century. The patient was a small boy. She brought a male therapist to him from another village; for while a lady therapist could mix the medicine it it usual for a male to rub the medicine all over a male patient and for a female to treat another woman.

Very few know the cure. Of the three men I heard about, one practised over half the Nilgiri Plateau, a second was too old to practise, and a third was not successful with the treatment because of his impure life. From all but the very poor the one still practising therapist accepts presents of any kind, but does not make a formal charge for his services. The patients do also have to give him 1/4 rupee as a "tree-present" and 1 1/4 rupees as "lamp-present" (see below).

The illness is caused by a passing god (*de:va:digo*), the corner of whose cloth has touched a person. The Big Wind starts at the point where the cloth hits him, and then spreads through the body. If the point which was struck is bigger than a rupee coin, it means that the god was angry with the patient, and in that case he cannot be cured although he will still live. According to one therapist the

234 778 (793) pasture on neighboring slopes, and processes milk into clarified butter. This, as the sacred clarified butter of the Badagas, is used in lamps within the dairy-temple and for ritual at Badaga festivals or temples. Any Badaga male may visit the Bergani dairy-temple and (237) (372) drink buttermilk given to him by the priest. Because women are polluting, no woman may enter the dairy-temple complex itself. However, (262) women of nearby Bergani hamlet come daily to an established point at (562) (783) an uncontaminating distance from the dairy-temple and there receive buttermilk for household consumption. Buttermilk from processed sacred milk is also drunk by the priest. The priest never eats meat 793 while in office and cooks his own vegetarian food. All grains, vege- (262) (431) tables, and other foodstuffs needed by him are supplied by visitors or neighboring Bergani Badagas.

796 (788) The festival honoring Masthi Hethai takes place on a Monday in mid-January. Badaga males from all over the Nilgiris come with their Hethai sticks to worship the goddess (Plate III, B). Women may also (562) attend, but must remain an uncontaminating distance away from sacred (293) (262) (784) places. Men and women wear new white clothing, must not bring anything made with leather, and eat no meat during the festival. At the festival's climax, two entranced priests believed to be possessed by (793) (241) (842) Masthi Hethai predict crop yields in the coming main crop season (karbokan) and inform a few men that their wives will shortly conceive. Daily and festival rituals at Bergani are thus parts of a fertility cult related to the Badaga's economy and future prosperity.

234 361 Badaga hundis. The Badagas have for a long time used seasonal